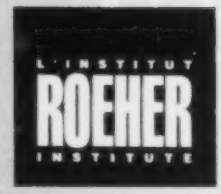

Policy Approaches to Framing Social Inclusion and Social Exclusion: An Overview

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Executive Summary

This report is the product of a preliminary review of the literature on Social Inclusion and Exclusion (SI / SE), and is intended as a background resource on conceptual and practical models of social inclusion. As such, the report provides analysis at the level of comparing, synthesizing and critique.

The report identifies that a key theme underlying the SI / SE literature is that of difference: how to manage it, appreciate it, and relate across it. The politics of recognition of difference represent a shift away from ideas of equality being premised on equal offerings by the state, and toward a demand for acknowledgement that some citizens ("the poor," "the marginalized," immigrants, single moms, people with disabilities, etc.) are less able to avail themselves of state offerings (and their rights) than others, and thus need special treatment. This changes the landscape of what citizens in liberal democracies like Canada or the EU expect from the state in terms of supports, accessibility, and inclusion. Where SE is a process and a state of being excluded due to lack of resources, work, or discrimination, SI advocates argue for both a change in the principles for the allocation of resources, and greater inclusion of typically marginalized people in the related decision processes.

There are radical and liberal visions of SI, as well as blends; although radical discourse is not uncommon, the pragmatics of indicators tend towards the liberal. There is some indication that, as states develop new processes for decisions about allocations and attempt to include the marginalized in them, the radical may become more prevalent. The tension between these social welfare policies and economic policies, however, generally pulls against that direction.

The primary SE/ SI focus is on improving the process conditions (structure, policies, systems) for SI; only cursory attention has been accorded to changing attitudinal conditions for SI (how the public feels, stereotypes, norms). The research found that more attention needs to be paid to public awareness and attitudes in order for the real sacrifices that radical SI involves to appear more compelling to the dominant group (who would be asked to cede advantage for this cause).

The report reviews briefly a history of the emergence of the twin concepts of SE / SI via the history of anti-poverty efforts and other social welfare programs. The twin concepts are considered to be popular and effective because they are ambiguous enough to encompass many cultural and group concerns and because they offer a more hopeful, optimistic way forward than poverty line and unemployment measures alone. It should still be recognized that those two factors remain the most significant elements of SE. The report reviews definitions of poverty, and notes the major finding of the decade to be the heterogeneity and mobility within the category "the poor"; as many as 1/3 of EU citizens experience poverty for different periods of time, and many move in and out of

the category, suggesting both instability and hope.

The report focuses on 6 definitions of SI and the 5 common elements of these definitions. The definitions share some common concerns, but with different emphases such as: health, relationships, social justice, outcomes of quality of life, levels of social and economic participation, and morality. Common elements of SI include: the temporal dimension (it is dynamic and static); multi-dimensional elements and systems (many single and structural factors contribute); cumulative, connected, varying degrees (the factors have a compounding effect); social relations dimension (relationships and networks are important stabilizers); and including the excluded in process in order for SI to work. Simply put, SE is about isolation of individuals or groups and their growing social and economic distance or detachment from normal societal systems and moral orders. Research shows that no effective solution to these issues yet exists.

Various versions of the meaning of Social Capital and Social Cohesion are shown to describe elements of the broader concept of SI, but the latter is also noted to be problematic in a diverse society where agreement on values is difficult. Next, the report reviews the ways in which Social Inclusion is about control, connectedness and a sense of balanced reciprocity. SI does not just mean having money, although some financial security is a pre-requisite for working towards other aspects of SI like acceptance by others, which is partially dependent on partaking in normal daily activities. The report shows the links between the SI model and other models such as the population health perspective, although SI is concerned with more than health.

Section three of the report presents a range of visions as to what a socially inclusive society might look like. At a general level an inclusive society is one in which all citizens feel that they have a place to come into their own, to be and to become. The report notes the difficulty in separating inputs from outcomes since they are often interchangeable and interwoven. Most SI visions focus on outcomes of SI processes, whereas the Participatory Action Research conducted for the Canadian Association for Community Living's (CACL) Community Inclusion Initiative seems to make room for the value of the process itself in SI initiatives. The difficulty of achieving a single vision of SI is that honouring differences tends to mean inviting an array of visions of SI that are not easily reconcilable. Three Canadian visions are explored: Canadian Council on Social Development (CCSD)/Laidlaw foundation, Health Promotion Atlantic, and CACL community projects. The utilitarian argument for SI is noted whereby the cost of SI measures is presented as less expensive than otherwise probable social welfare, health and criminal costs. Aspects of the radical vision for SI and how it compares to the liberal visions are discussed.

Section four begins with a brief history of the origins, types and arrangements of social indicators and indices, and challenges associated with them. The difficulty of designing appropriate, robust and culturally comparable measures is also presented. Finally, the research explores the actual content of the most common and effective indicators of SI that have been developed to date. It presents models developed expressly for SI / SE as well as others with similar aims such as quality of life, well-being, and determinants of health. Most are general measures, although one set of indicators from Human Resources Development Canada was developed expressly for people with disabilities. Although using a variety of sub-classifications and terms, these sets contain many overlapping concerns and indicators. It is important in developing any new set of indicators to take

into consideration existing availability of data to measure issues of concern, the cost involved in developing and testing new measures, and the challenges with accuracy and internal compatibility of non-economic measures. These issues have been part of why the EU has not yet agreed on qualitative and non-economic indicators.

I. Opening Discussion about Social Inclusion

This report seeks to outline the meaning, dimensions, and policy implications of the current movement in the social and economic policy fields of the twin concepts of social inclusion and social exclusion. A preliminary review of the literature has revealed that in a variety of ways the concept is tied to difference and what we do (or do not do) about it. Notions of social inclusion and exclusion focus centrally on differences in character (individual, cultural, geographic; ascribed and achieved) and differences in opportunity (to be and to do), as dictated by background, environment and poverty, but also by agency. Speaking about democracy and diversity, one government of Canada policy reads: "A central premise underlying democracy is the belief that people are different" (CERIS 2002). As Ignatieff wrote, "To believe in rights is to believe in defending difference" (ibid.).

Social inclusion as a concept is intended to push us to think about how to imagine those differences in new ways that help us to find better, or at least complementary, policy solutions to add to what liberal democratic, anti-poverty and rights approaches have been able to accomplish. Unlike anti-poverty measures, it is argued that SI is about "much more than money." Aspects of people's experience that come into the fold with this approach include: social attitudes, relationships, stigma, the freedom to make choices and the feeling that your existential desires and civic, political opinions matter.

A social inclusion (SI) approach conceives of social exclusion as a social and structural issue as much as an individual issue, thus requiring policy-makers to think about the problems of poverty and exclusion in a way that removes the sole burden of fault/solution from those who are excluded or disadvantaged. SI also draws from population health approaches which have built an instrumental case for a public health care system by demonstrating that the health and well-being of all citizens in a society is impacted by allowing persistent ill-health in some members (Guildford 2000; Shookner 2000: 16). In the same instrumental vein, SI in the European Union (EU) has been buttressed by an economic argument that reducing exclusion due to unemployment and poverty will strengthen the entire economy (i.e. for all citizens), not least because preventing unemployment, ill-health and crime is less costly than treating them in hospitals and jails and with long-term welfare (Farrington 2002: 7; Guildford 2000). SI also draws upon, but tries to move beyond, rights discourse to make the moral case that policies and interventions which seek to create inclusion and opportunity for all are simply the right thing to do. It tries however, to avoid putting that in a charitable framework which can be experienced by recipients as condescending and thus reproducing the very social distance that it seeks to collapse.

Cultural – Conceptual Context

Social inclusion theorists suggest that modernism sought to create universal solutions for

all, and insisted that the best way to achieve equality of opportunity was to be "difference blind" and treat "everyone the same." This stance grows out of, and thus dovetails with, Western, liberal democratic principles of governance, and Habermasian notions of a neutral public sphere where all people can theoretically come together as equals by "bracketing off" their differences (Fraser 1994; Habermas 1989). Now, conversely, many groups are coming forth and pointing to how they were systematically excluded, or at least prevented from full inclusion in society by that liberal model because it is not, in fact, neutral, because differences that are fundamental to who people are, are nearly impossible to bracket (Taylor 1992; Joseph 2002; Olthius 2000).

Post-modern theory incites such charges, alleging that modernist metanarratives (including liberalism) are biased, and that modernist aims of unity and solidarity (not to mention efficiency), have had the effect of excluding, choking off and suppressing people with different and/or dissenting points of view, and ways of being in the world. Under this critical pressure, even Canadians' sacred sense of our multiculturalism as tolerant and inclusive, suffers critique (Mackey 1999).

In attempting to determine what it is that separates us as humans, legal theorist Minnow ends up with an exasperated "Doesn't everything divide us?" (1990: 1). At this juncture, it is salient to discuss the politics of recognition in relation to the question of handling difference. Philosopher Charles Taylor demonstrates that since the late eighteenth century, Westerners have prioritized identity projects; specifically, the authenticity ideal – wherein each person is conceived as morally bound to become his or her true self. This is achieved through listening to one's inner voice or truth, but it is also, importantly, constructed dialogically – in and through our relations with others (1992: 30-9). Hence the new importance and anxiety Westerners put on the need for others to recognize our "selves" (loc cit). It is in this spirit that we have come to want to be recognized and valued for our differences (individually and as sub-altern groups) as much as our common humanity. To recognize difference through special treatment though, is in direct opposition to the idea of equality as it has been built into our democratic systems. Critics of democratic liberalism argue that its solution to difference has merely been to expand its definition of who is "in," by allowing new groups access, but on the condition that they "check their difference at the door."

Instead, these groups want the system to open itself up to difference, and rather than trying to subsume or overcome it, to celebrate it and allow the dissonance difference creates to challenge the accepted notions of right and wrong that are embedded in the system. This of course, entails a massive shift in the regime of recognition: it entails creating systems, programs and resource allocation policies which support differential treatment of some groups, on the grounds that this special support is necessary to ensure access to equality, or actual equality instead of a theoretical possibility of equality. Depending on the group, this can mean access to education in one's native language, money for assistive devices or a personal assistant, integrated classrooms, legislation to actively counter racism or homophobia, or even subsidizing meals for underprivileged youth so that they can learn on a full stomach and break the cycle(s) of poverty. We already have some such policies and programmes, but the request here is for a much-expanded scope.

People advocating for social inclusion believe that not only do different decisions need to be made about resource allocation, but that the decision process itself needs to involve more stakeholders, including those who are tradition-

ally excluded from such civic participation. SI advocates also believe that in trying to involve new kinds of people in the decision processes that impact on their lives, the system should not pressure those people to bracket their fundamental differences as if they didn't matter, when they clearly do. Instead advocates believe a new form of space or polity should be created in which the appropriate role of these differences can be honestly and openly negotiated through engagement, dialogue and compromise on all sides. One proponent cautions that while embracing difference is the only true alternative now, "the shaping of such an inclusive civic ethos is outrageously difficult – no one should believe otherwise!" (Olthius 2000: 7). Our own fragmentary Canadian experience with national constitutional debates is just one example of how challenging it is to come to acceptable statements of unitary purpose once the value of difference is claimed and fought for.

Observations

I close with two observations about the social inclusion/exclusion literature. In considering the conditions which trigger exclusion or facilitate inclusion, there are two broad categories which can be considered. Process conditions can be considered those structures, policies and opportunities that help people to participate. Attitudinal conditions have to do with current public understanding of, or feelings towards, one or more disadvantaged groups. A positive change in attitudinal conditions would mean an increase in public empathy and welcome of people who are different. In such a scenario, citizens would feel motivated to undertake supportive behaviours on their own rather than being pushed or legislated to support inclusion. A preliminary assessment is that the literature seems to deal most often and effectively with naming important process conditions, and current barriers to them. In the area of attitudinal conditions on the other hand, the literature is less clear, convincing or prescriptive. If discussed at all, it tends towards idealism, and anti-liberal or radical statements. This is a concern because convincing the public is important: both the privileged and the disadvantaged have something at stake with the SI approach. To be successful, social inclusion requires changes in attitude, and power and resource-sharing on the part of the dominant group. History has shown that such sacrifices of interest are not easily ceded, and the literature does not deal adequately with this reality.

Finally, the social inclusion and exclusion literature, especially the more radical writers in the mix, tend to demonize, and give agency to, terms like- dominant groups, whites, the government, and global corporations, as if these were mass entities with agency, instead of structures and phenomena created by individual humans. While organizational cultures do exert influence over how actors understand their options, at the end of the day, what these organizations do (or do not do) is based on the cumulative decisions of individual moral actors. We should not release individuals (with their intra-group differences) from scrutiny: They make choices which can directly or indirectly result in exclusion. Their choices are less often born out of malice than due to their lack of tools to understand the inherent value in "the other." These moral actors therefore need tools to help them bridge across their fear and lack of understanding. An anthropologist wrote that "human beings forget that the world is not simply given; it is also made and made over in everything they do" (Jackson 1995: 148).

Although there are grave debates over the extent to which individual agency accomplishes change, it is in that hopeful spirit that social inclusion policy is aimed at influencing the shape of our societies, and particularly the experience of those currently on its margins.

II. History and Definitions

This section provides a review of common articulations of five terms salient to social inclusion. A brief history of the SI/SE field provides an opening context. For the remaining definitions of poverty, social exclusion, social capital, social cohesion, and finally, social inclusion, rather than supply just one definition, several possibilities are included to showcase the range of perspectives in the field. Although part of the present research mandate was to discuss social inclusion (SI) as something more than simply the converse of social exclusion (SE), they are almost inextricably intertwined. As one writer for Health Canada succinctly wrote, "Simply put, exclusion is the problem; inclusion is the solution" (Guildford 2000: 3). It is, in other words, increasingly widespread exclusion (and the social and economic costs associated with this problem), that has catalyzed government concern with inclusion. Definitions of social exclusion and poverty are thus vital to explore, and in fact, form the basis of the majority of indicators of SI/SE already instituted by the EU and various Canadian organizations.

A. History

There are several sources which go into detail about the historical trajectory of interests, events and conflicts through which social inclusion ascended into its current position of privilege in the policy literature (Silver 1995; Vleminckx and Berghman 1995; Paughm 1995). Given the mandate of this report, this section deals only briefly with this process. Throughout the 1960s and 1970s in Europe, Canada and the US, there was a strong policy emphasis on anti-poverty measures, and also an attempt to develop social and economic indicators to track, illuminate and explain changes in poverty levels in relation to various policy measures. As discussed further in section IV, the indicators proved relatively inutile to policy makers.

In addition, macro-economic changes led to major shifts in government policy away from concern with anti-poverty in the late 1970s and early 1980s. Eventually, the negative impact of a focused pursuit of fiscal restraint and cutbacks became evident in serious social problems with unemployment, crime, homelessness and poverty, and interest thus resurfaced.

The EU Poverty 3 plan sought to deal with these problems, but also, under French influence, to take a more holistic approach than the anti-poverty movements of the past. The Poverty 3 plan differentiated explicitly between poverty (money and distributional issues) and social exclusion (encompassing income but also relationships, social participation, health, and other freedoms) (Berghman 1995: 18). Many EU commentators point out that in dealing with poverty, the Anglo-Saxon approach has been to develop a fixed poverty line (distributional issue) as its main indicator, while the French have advocated for the more wide-ranging social exclusion approach, which supplements material concerns with examination of other factors which they insist are relevant to

assessing hardship (Vleminckx & Berghman 1995: 28-30). These include: relational issues, inadequate social participation, lack of integration in support networks, control over decisions that impact one's life, civic engagement, and power (Room 1995: 5). The EU has decided to move in the direction of assessing SE, alongside poverty line measures. Currently, the EU continues to wrestle with how to "operationalize" the more complex SE concept in research and indicators, as discussed by Room (1995: 5).

The SE/SI approaches to contemporary social and economic issues share concerns and solutions with many prior and co-extant approaches including: quality of life, human development indices (UN), well-being, anti-poverty, multiculturalism, pluralism, democracy, civil society, rights movement, the politics of difference, and the politics of recognition. One question that emerges is: What makes SE/SI such an appealing pair of concepts at this point in time? Other than strong French advocacy, the most frequent term that emerges to describe the appeal of SE/SI is ambiguity. "Social exclusion is popular because it is sufficiently ambiguous in contrast to 'poverty' and it carries less negative connotations than poverty did" (paraphrased from Walker 1995: 102). Mayes continues: "Social exclusion is a diffuse concept with a non-quantifiable air to it. Imprecision has advantages – it allows many different people to come together and co-operate, where they would not otherwise find common ground … it also allows local interpretations and adaptations to their own issues and situations" (paraphrased from Mayes 2001: 4). Other writers argue that social exclusion and inclusion offer new and hopeful possibilities that are not as obvious within poverty or unemployment heuristics.

My review of the literature, however, reveals that in spite of the substantial amount of discussion about the other dimensions of exclusion/inclusion, in the end, the indicators which the EU has developed for its next set of NAPs/incl are predominantly income or employment measures, and for good reason: the research appears to show that financial resources and jobs are by far the key factors which prevent, or help to move people out of, social exclusion. However, the EU indicator designers have stated plans to actively develop non-monetary indicators very soon (European Commission DJR 2001; Atkinson 2002).

There are also disadvantages to the ambiguity of the SE/SI approach. In the EU, Mayes argues that its vagueness means that some member states and cities can get away with doing very little new, and instead claim compliance with the EU mandate by counting their existing programmes (2001: 4). "Worse still, the inherently non-measurable aspects of the problem enable governments to cite inputs as action rather than forcing them to show what they have achieved in some quantifiable reduction in net exclusion" (Mayes 2001: 4).

Vagueness at the conceptual level also plays out in problems of survey design and interpretation at the level of language and vocabulary (Golding 1995). Poverty, social exclusion, social disqualification, dissociation, isolation and other words carry a range of meanings to different people just in English, but this problem is compounded when dealing with multiple languages and cultural values. For example, when translating "poverty" to French, would the best choice be pauvreté, misére, or some other term?

Word choice has been shown to make a statistically significant impact on survey results in the EU. For example, surveys yield different results by using the terms "poverty" or "social exclusion" within one culture/ language group. In addition, the difference can be even more complex across cultures. Results from the same EU survey in Portugal and Holland revealed surprisingly large differences in responses

between the terms in each country, and in addition, the results for Holland were the inverse of those for Portugal (Golding 1995: 229-30).

The EU overall strategic goal agreed to at the Lisbon conference in 2000 is "to become the most competitive and dynamic knowledge-based economy, capable of sustained economic growth with more and better jobs and greater social cohesion" (European Commission DJR 2001). It should be obvious that the social and economic objectives contained in that statement can be inherently contradictory (at least in the capitalist model which is the current model in the EU and North America). It is also noted that both objectives are even more challenging for the EU to meet as a unit if they agree to enlargement as planned by incorporating nations with much less well-developed social welfare nets (Atkinson 2002: 2). Atkinson (who led the development of EU indicators for the Social Protection Committee of the European Commission) notes that for SE/SI initiatives to succeed, it will be vital to achieve better intra- and inter-state coordination and for the social policies to be accorded due weight strategically in relation to economic ones (Atkinson 2002: 3-6).

At this juncture in the history of the SE/SI approach, there are two points to make. First, various sources conclude that there is "greater consensus about what threatens social cohesion (unemployment, poverty, income inequality, social exclusion and exclusion from the information society) than on what promotes it" (Health Canada 2002), and this means that visions of the means and ends for inclusion are still inchoate and evolving around the world. It seems certain that the concept will continue a somewhat fragmented evolution because in every jurisdiction that was reviewed, the approach is used in tandem with the subsidiarity management approach, which accords significant flexibility to local and regional authorities to adapt the idea for their own situations.

Second, the development of non-monetary indicators and subjective indicators will be difficult, and especially difficult to achieve at a national or international level. Aside from the greater cost of both getting and analyzing qualitative or subjective data, there is also the fact that research has shown that subjective/public opinion answers regarding SE/SI are often internally contradictory or disconnected from corresponding objective data (Golding 1995: 222). For example, while respondents may indicate an understanding of, and sympathy with the environmental, discrimination, and social justice dimensions of poverty in one section of a survey, they have then noted "alcoholism" (an individual factor) as a key cause of poverty (Golding 1995: 222). Other surveys show the public as vastly underestimating the extent of poverty and exclusion in their country (ibid: 214). Such problems of measurement and consistency make it difficult to use these results for tracking or analysis, but without them, the benefits of SE / SI concepts are not fully appreciated.

B. Poverty

"People are in poverty when their resources are so limited as to exclude them from the minimum acceptable way of life in the state in which they live."
(Hansen 1994 in Golding 1995: 213)

As discussed above, poverty was traditionally measured almost exclusively in terms of lack of income (i.e. indirectly) and continues to be an important measurement today (Berghman 1995: 20) although other dimensions (longevity, assets, severity) can now also be included. Although there are many ways to measure it, the most common is the poverty rate, which is often considered to be the share of people whose income is less than approximately half of the national equivalised median income

for the population (European Commission DJR 2001:16). For perspective, in Canada in 1996, the poverty rate reached 18% (Guildford 2000: 5). It is important to note that the drop in income was not distributed evenly ~ "not all Canadians were becoming poorer" (Guildford 2000: 5). Economic inequality also increased in the 1980s and 1990s (ibid.).

EU poverty rates appear to be similar according to data from the 1997 European Community Household Panel Survey (ECHP) showing 18% of "the EU population was living in households with income below this [60%] threshold; just about the same as in 1995. This corresponds to more than 60 million individuals in the EU, of which about half" experienced long-term (3 years+) poverty between 1995-97 (European Commission DJR 2001: 16).

This data can also show the impact of the social protection system on the distribution of income by subtracting (hypothetically) social transfers from income: without transfers, 26% of the EU population would be considered below the poverty line, and without pensions, a full 41% would (European Commission DJR 2001: 17). Another study in the EU comes up with slightly different numbers in trying to take into account longevity and other factors which can exacerbate the effects of poverty. "At least 10% of the EU population in the mid-1990s" were "seriously disadvantaged" (i.e. long-term poverty) "...only 7% experience this state long-term, but about 1/3 of the population experienced some dimension(s) of disadvantage" (Mayes et. al. 2001: 1).

These numbers reveal one of the striking learnings that has emerged in the last decade from poverty research: that "the poor" is not a stable or homogenous category (Paughm 1995: 49). Estimates suggest that although poverty rates may range from 15-18%, the number and type of people who spend at least some time in this state is much greater. The figure of 1/3, above, means that many people cycled in and out of relative states of poverty over time, perhaps more than once (Berghman 1995: 22). Walker defines poverty as "a shortfall in resources relative to a legitimate set of needs" and urges policy makers to be more strategic in their choice of accounting period because these produce different numbers (1995: 104).

In the US, for example, shifting from calculating the number of people who have experienced poverty in a one-month period to a one-year period causes a 24% higher poverty rate (Walker 1995: 104). Assessing occurrence of poverty over a longer period results in higher reported prevalence (number of people who have experienced poverty in that time, but not necessarily for the whole time) or "short-term poverty" whereas research into duration directs attention to the "permanent poor" (ibid.: 106). Walker concludes that poverty should be measured for: duration, severity, and lack of resources in relation to need (ibid.: 113).

In differentiating poverty and SE, one analyst suggests that poverty is an outcome, social exclusion is a process, but notes that both have static and dynamic (over time) aspects (Berghman 1995: 20, 36). The recent EU social indicators team concurs with this duality (Cantillon 2001). According to Paughm, "poverty is not static but a cumulative, degenerative syndrome" that results from a temporal chain of events; hence the need for better longitudinal studies (1995: 90-93). Some elements of social exclusion are considered both cause and consequence of prolonged poverty (e.g. ill health, psychosis, lack of skills to find a job) (Berghman 1995: 45). Another evocative phrase is: "poverty is a process of social disqualification" (Paughm 1995: 50, my emphasis).

Following noted economist Amartya Sen, Berghman holds that poverty is just part of - one form of - deprivation and social exclusion

(Berghman 1995: 20, 36). It is somewhat misleading however, to imply that it is not the major part. Research in Holland, for example, shows that those who get a job are five times more likely to exit a state of poverty and achieve "reinsertion" or inclusion (Walker 1995: 124). The next two lead indicators are education and prior economic status - both directly tied to financial resources (loc cit.). Lack of financial resources seems to touch on almost all aspects of life, leading one writer to describe poverty as "partial and truncated citizenship" (Golding 1995: 231).

Researchers in the EU are learning more about poverty from the poor themselves; for example, the long-term poor sometimes cope better with poverty than the "oscillators," (those who go in and out of poverty) because over a long time they develop better fiscal and shopping techniques, and at least have certainty about their limits, rather than uncertainty and change (Walker 1995: 114-8). Furthermore, researchers are heartened to learn that "while events which can trigger poverty are widespread, poverty is a comparatively rare end result," (ibid.: 121) suggesting that prevention policies and supports are working to some degree at least.

One OECD initiative follows housing and the geographical concentration of factors abetting processes of impoverishment. The report argues that a more integrated approach is needed because "housing policies have largely been pursued in a vacuum from other social and economic policies, with disastrous consequences in some cities" (OECD Housing 1996: 23). Poor policies and economic changes have led to "the emergence and persistence within cities of areas of severe deprivation and exclusion in which the disadvantages of individuals and families are compounded by the poor quality of the environment and housing and by the lack of adequate and appropriate community facilities" (OECD Housing 1996: 13). While ghettoized poverty is not new, it is increasingly widespread and severe (ibid: 16).

Given this prevalence, it is important to note that 1/3 of Europeans surveyed believe there is "no poverty in my area," and an increasing number say that they "never come across poverty" and even less "social exclusion" (Golding 1995: 214). As Golding notes, this kind of research on beliefs about poverty, however, is difficult given that the public's "beliefs about poverty and social exclusion are complex, contradictory, and extensive" (1995: 228).

C. *Social Exclusion*

In this section, several possible definitions of social exclusion (SE) are presented along with the key dimensions which are being used to distinguish SE from poverty. As noted earlier, many writers begin by noting that SE is an "essentially contested concept;" sometimes attributed to its newness (Silver 1994: 540), but also to the political and pragmatic value of being only vaguely defined: "The expression is so evocative, ambiguous, multidimensional and elastic that it can be defined in many different ways ... [therefore] it can serve a variety of political purposes" (Silver 1994: 536, 41). While some policy analysts object to the trend on the grounds that it is merely a "synonym for the familiar grim reality we once called poverty," (Farrington 2002: 4) others, such as the Canadian Policy Research Initiative, insist that it is about more: "Exclusion is not only the material deprivation of the poor, but also their inability to fully exercise their social, cultural and political rights as citizens" (Health Canada 2001: 1).

1. Definitions

- Social exclusion is a "process of becoming detached from the moral order" (Castels

1990 cited in Room 1995: 6).

- "Poverty and social exclusion refer to when people are prevented from participating fully in economic, social and civil life and/or when their access to income and other resources (personal, family, social and cultural) is so inadequate as to exclude them from enjoying a standard of living and quality of life that is regarded as acceptable by the society in which they live. In such situations people often are unable to fully access their fundamental rights" (European Commission DJR 2001: 11).
- "Social exclusion is a blend of multidimensional and mutually reinforcing processes of deprivation, associated with a progressive dissociation from social milieus, resulting in the isolation of individuals and groups from the mainstream of opportunities society has to offer" (Vleminckx and Berghman 1995: 46).
- "Social exclusion is a phenomenon of alienation and distance from society... Exclusion is the fact of preventing, even temporarily, someone from participating in social relationships and the construction of society" (Odile 1995, cited in Health Canada 2002).
- "Social exclusion is about income but it is about more. It is about prospects and networks and life-chances. It's a very modern problem, and one that is more harmful to the individual, more damaging to self-esteem, more corrosive for society as a whole, more likely to be passed down from generation to generation, than material poverty" ~ British PM Tony Blair (cited in Duffy/Guildford 2000: 3).
- SE refers to "multi-dimensional disadvantage which is of substantial duration and which involves dissociation from the major social and occupational milieux of society" (Room et. al. 1992 cited in Golding 1995: 213).

2. Dimensionalizing Exclusion

In this section, several sources are synthesized which tease out important dimensions of social and economic exclusion. It is important to note that in this entire review, no source was found which attempted to put importance or priority weights on the different dimensions, nor on the risk factors leading to social exclusion . The only exception to this was the implicit message that income and employment are the most significant factors given the large share of indicators that they take up. One author briefly notes that such an exercise in prioritization would be difficult because of the complexity of linkages (Whelan & Whelan 1995: 37).

Room argues that SE includes "distributional and relational" issues, and identifies "participation, integration, and power" as important dimensions (1995: 243). Paughm points to how risk, or "social and economic precariousness" leads to SE and poverty (1995: 49, my emphasis). He also notes that risk factors for SE can also be outcomes of SE: marital instability, precarious employment, inadequate social and family life, and inadequate support networks (ibid.: 50).

Farrington (2002: 1) breaks down the dimensions of social exclusion into three parts: processes of exclusion, the people SE affects and "the world which these processes and people inhabit." Some of his categories as well as others to highlight key elements of SE are presented below.

a. Temporal dimension: Dynamic and static

- Writers note that SE is both a state of being and a process of becoming; it changes in severity and character over time, and this has implications for policy interventions.
- SE is dynamic, it occurs over time (Whelan & Whelan 1995: 48).

- "Social exclusion is not just a description of the adverse consequences of disadvantage but of the process by which people become distanced from the benefits of participating in a modern society" (Mayes et. al. 2001: 2).
- Public policy should aim to help people to invest in stabilizers in good times (assets, networks, families) that will help to protect them from divestment and SE in bad times (Room 1995: 244).

b. Multi-Dimensional elements and systems

- "Multi-dimensional refers to the different sources of deprivation (Percy-Smith 2000: 15) and the different processes (social, economic, cultural and political) that enable it" (Randolph & Judd 1999: 6, cited in Farrington 2002: 2).
- "There is consensus of opinion regarding the multi-dimensional nature of social exclusion" (Farrington 2002: 2).
- Risk of SE is influenced by many factors; for example, having a person with disabilities in a household increases the risk of SE for everyone in house; list of 6 key indicators of greater vulnerability to SE: housing mobility; over-average incidence of health emergencies/ social assistance; high level of requests for assistance and perception of need; heavy use of day centres, retirement homes and other social services; perception of status deterioration (especially economic); and support for privatization of services (Zajczyk 1995: 93-4).
- Systems approach suggests that: "the comprehensive concept of social exclusion refers to a breakdown or malfunctioning of the major societal systems that should guarantee full citizenship" (Berghman 1995: 20).
- Farrington lists 5 types of systems: social, economic, institutional, territorial, symbolic references (esteem, identity). Social exclusion can be defined "in terms of the failure of one or more systems [of belonging] regarded as fundamental for the functioning of society" (2002: 4-5).
- According to Vleminckx & Berghman (2001: 33), the EU Observatory on SE (Room et. al. 1991) indicates that SE is the result of a failure of one or more systems in people's lives. "One's sense of belonging in society depends on all four systems," which are complementary. "The worst off are those for whom all systems have failed" (Commins 1993: 4, cited in Vleminckx & Berghman 2001: 33).
- Democratic and Legal system (promotes civic integration)
- Labour market (promotes economic integration)
- Welfare state system (promotes social integration)
- Family and Community systems (promotes interpersonal integration)

c. Cumulative, Connected, Varying Degrees

Building from the recognition of the multidimensional nature of SE, writers are also examining degrees of exclusion, and ways in which factors contributing to exclusion are connected and likely also have a cumulative or compound effect (Paughm 1995: 60).

- Denmark developed the "concept of an intermediate state, 'marginalisation'," which is not as bad as SE, but "from which one can readily slip into exclusion rather than back into full participation" (Mayes et. al. 2001: 5).
- Marginalization entails risks and fragility (Paughm 1995: 71).
- Noting the cumulative effect over time of various factors, Mayes describes the "process of exclusion which moves people towards a state of relative deprivation and social disadvantage" (2001: 6).
- Farrington distinguishes between 3 positions that different policy makers have

taken with regard to the interconnections of SE triggers. The multiple factors of SE are: a) just interconnected; b) cumulative and compounding effects; or c) part of a "vicious cycle," or "spiral of disadvantage" (2002: 3).

- "Exclusionary effects themselves are often compounding factors" (Farrington 2002: 3).
- In order to better understand the degrees of SE, it would be useful to have more categories to distinguish the type and amount of work people have, (part-time, temporary, at risk, low-skilled, sheltered, etc.) and how precarious it is, rather than only indicating employed or unemployed (Paughm 1995: 51).

d. Social Relations Dimension

As Frazee has noted, "relationships are the currency" of a social inclusion approach (2003: 16). Many authors indicate the importance of relationships in forming support networks, contacts, and resources that can help prevent people who are at risk (poor, unemployed, immigrant, single parents) from slipping deeper into SE.

- "While "social isolation" is a common term to describe the negative state of exclusion, it can be more usefully conceived in terms of degrees of "participation." Such a term suggests places to look for barriers to people's ability to participate in society in "the normal activities of citizens" (paraphrased from Farrington 2002: 3).
- For example, unemployment (especially of men) increases marriage break-ups, which further deteriorates other social relations. In terms of vulnerability to SE, this moves both men and women closer to SE, because a solid marriage is a key stabilizer and aid in preventing poverty and SE. Furthermore, single moms and their kids are one of the most vulnerable groups (Paughm 1995: 52, 60).
- The greater the precariousness of one's employment, the lower one's sociability. The role of sociability is vital to consider given examples like Greece. Greece has historically had high social cohesion, and social relations and family support were shown to play a major role in the prevention of SE, given the lack of social welfare programs (Paughm 1995: 55).
- Lack of relations can mean a faster fall through the SE process in times of macroeconomic change: 26% of EU citizens without a stable job now indicate that they have "very poor" relations in life and little network support (Paughm 1995: 63).

e. The Experience of the Excluded

Definitions of SE also attempt to take up the question of who is being impacted by exclusion: individuals, particular risk groups or everyone. As Farrington notes: "Despite its title, social exclusion is not an 'exclusive' process. Everyone is affected by the social and economic costs of exclusionary processes" (2002: 4). He notes that the UK's PM Tony Blair promoted his social exclusion policy on the message that all citizens should care about reducing SE because "excluded citizens pose a social (criminal) and economic threat to the whole society" (ibid: 4).

Although such a platform is likely to generate greater support for SI from the general public, the unfortunate side-effect of such an approach is that "exclusion discourse may also ghettoize risk categories under a new label and publicize the more spectacular forms of cumulative disadvantage, distracting attention from the general rise in inequality, unemployment, and family dissolution" (Silver 1994: 540). So "creating a debate about groups" can inadvertently further marginalize them (Farrington 2002: 4).

There is also frequent mention of "the excluded" in terms of their historical lack of

participation in, or exclusion from, processes of decision-making and policy-making that impact their lives. This has been noted as itself part of the problem of exclusion. Proposals for correcting this are discussed in sections III and IV.

3. Hard to Combat even with the Will

Many centres and institutes have been formed across Europe and increasingly in Canada to deal with reducing SE and promoting SI. For example, in the UK, the Centre for Analysis of Social Exclusion (CASE) states that its goal is: "to investigate the individual characteristics and social institutions which prevent exclusion, and promote recovery, regeneration and inclusion." But the desire to reduce it, even when backed by political will and financial resources, is not yet enough to combat it, at least not in the short-term. As Mayes notes, "none of the current solutions being employed by different EU member states has so far been able to eliminate poverty rapidly" (2001: 23).

In a landmark paper, Silver discusses in detail the variety of economic policies that have been employed internationally with only small improvements or merely status quo SE figures (1995). Strategies have included both supply-side and demand-side economic approaches deployed through high and low welfare payments, (e.g. the U.S. uses low, short-term welfare transfers as an incentive to work), workfare, job retraining, and public sector work, and yet none of these programs has achieved substantial reductions in the number of unemployed or the number of poor (loc cit).

She discusses problems with the policies that are both intrinsic (e.g. high welfare payments are a disincentive to work, but low welfare and low minimum wage create precarious employment and do not reduce poverty), but also issues related to macro changes and global influences that are out of the control of any one nation. She concludes that SE/SI are nevertheless important to work towards directionally, and she discusses several examples of collaborative, creative initiatives that have been undertaken and seem promising, but cautions that they take a long time, and require strategic support.

D. Social Capital

Social capital is a term used occasionally in the discussions of SE/SI and overlaps with SI in multiple ways. One example of the overlapping concerns is suggested by a recent special issue of the Isuma Canadian Journal of Policy Research. It is said to addresses questions like "How can we better assess the impact of social capital on economic performance and health, crime and happiness?" (in Health Canada 2002). Another example is a research project at UBC's Centre for Research on Economic and Social Policy which examines "inequality and insecurity in Canada and the role of social capital" (loc cit). A few definitions of social capital provide a necessary background.

- "Social capital refers to features of social organization such as networks, norms, and social trust that facilitate coordination and cooperation for mutual benefit" (Putnam 1995).
- "Social capital describes the resources available to individuals through their membership in community networks. In contrast to financial capital, which resides in people's bank accounts, or human capital, which is embodied in individuals' investment in education and job training, social capital inheres in the structure and quality of social relationships between individuals" (Kawachi, cited in Health Canada 2002).

Some discussions of SE suggest that 'community' must be a catalyst for building social

capital and insist that SE is more likely to occur when "the community doesn't work" (Farrington 2002: 3). "Participation in community networks forms the basis, the currency, with which to obtain trust, support and reciprocal help and, therefore, the growth of social capital" (loc cit.). Social capital and community participation are thus seen as "antidote[s] to social exclusion" (loc cit.).

E. Social Cohesion

One definition of social cohesion is: "Social cohesion is constructed upon shared values, a common discourse, and a reduction of gaps in riches and revenues" (CERIS 2001). This speaks directly to the primary indicator used to measure social cohesion, which is the ratio of the income of the top quintile to the bottom quintile in a given state or area. There are others which bring in more factors:

- "Social cohesion is the ongoing process of developing a community of shared values, shared challenges and equal opportunity within Canada, based on a sense of trust, hope and reciprocity among all Canadians" (Social Cohesion Network Policy Research Initiative, Health Canada 2002: 2).
- "The World Bank uses the terms social capital and social cohesion synonymously.... Social cohesion... is a hybrid concept... The Council of Europe asserts that social cohesion is an essential condition for democratic security - divided and unequal societies are not only unjust, they also cannot guarantee long term stability" ~ Jane Jenson (in Health Canada 2002: 2).

Various writers note that "there is greater consensus about what threatens social cohesion (unemployment, poverty, income inequality, social exclusion and exclusion from the information society) than on what promotes it" (Health Canada 2001: 2; see also Vleminckx & Berghman 2001: 44-5). Furthermore, there is a significant conflict inherent in the notion of social cohesion that is not immediately apparent in these definitions. Charles Taylor notes that the problem with the idea of recognizing and valuing diverse ways of being in the world, is that "equality of esteem requires a tight unity of purpose that seems to be incompatible with any differentiation" (1992: 50).

Other writers like Joseph argue that historically, statements of national or community unity have often been achieved in part through the suppression of differences which do not fit into the dominant schema (2002). This discussion is elaborated in section III. For now, suffice it to say that the particulars of social cohesion are more problematic in a diverse society than is apparent on first blush, and achieving movement towards mutual understanding across difference entails real challenges.

F. Social Inclusion

"We can flourish only to the extent that we are recognized. Each consciousness seeks recognition in another"

(Hegel paraphrased in Taylor 1992: 50)

The examination of Social Inclusion itself in this report is divided into three sections corresponding to distinct, if intertwined, aspects of the concept. The present section deals with the range of definitions which have been proposed by leading thinkers in the field in the EU and Canada. As has been noted by Atkinson, and similarly to SE, no single definition currently prevails, and the EU team Atkinson leads uses SI to refer to "a range of concerns" related to a social agenda (Atkinson et. al. 2002: 3). What needs to be clear, however, is that the most advanced thinking on the subject is now asserting that, given the importance of income and

employment to positive outcomes, it ought to be considered as "social and economic inclusion," and integrated with economic policies.

Following this, Section III deals with what a socially inclusive society might look like as an outcome, and Section IV proposes several sets of indicators that are currently being used or proposed internationally for how to measure social inclusion and salient sister concepts of individual and societal well-being and quality of life.

This section opened with Taylor's reflection on the human need to have our worth recognized by others because this connotes one of the key meta-level themes at play in the SI discussions. An anthropologist studying what makes people feel "at home," suggested a similar theme: "Experientially, being at-home in the world connotes a sense of existential control and connectedness – the way we feel when what we say or do seems to matter," and also a place where we feel a sense of balance between what we give and what we get (Jackson 1995: 154). Sen is also widely quoted as adding non-economic factors to the discussion: "Inclusion requires 'freedom from shame'. It is thus not just the avoidance of unsatisfactory conditions but the attitude to the conditions" (Sen 1983). However, given that most of the literature reviewed here is directly policy-related, it must concern itself with the pragmatic particulars of how people attain or are given tools to achieve this sense of balance and connection, belonging and becoming. Guildford's report for Health Canada's Atlantic Regional Office points to such concerns regarding inclusion and exclusion.

> *The word "inclusion" has an everyday meaning for most of us. To be included is to be accepted and to be able to participate fully within our families, our communities and our society. Those who are excluded, whether because of poverty, ill-health, gender, race, or lack of education, do not have the opportunity for full participation in the economic and social benefits of society. Exclusion describes the condition many people face, but it also helps us to analyse and understand the processes by which social and economic exclusion occurs and is maintained* (Guildford 2000: 1).

Guildford comes at the questions of social and economic inclusion from her background in a population health perspective (Health Canada 2002: 2). She notes that part of the appeal of the SE/SI approach is that it "covers all 12 determinants of health. Both approaches emphasize the importance of engaging partners from all sectors (including 'the excluded') and of considering the ways in which the determinants of health interact" (Guildford 2000: 5). Health is an important part of inclusion, and ill-health can also lead to exclusion, but health is by no means the only part of inclusion. The definitions of social inclusion outlined below suggest broader concerns.

- "Inclusion is characterized by a society's widely shared social experience and active participation, by a broad equality of opportunities and life chances for individuals and by the achievement of a basic level of well-being for all citizens" (Sen 2001).
- "Social inclusion is the capacity and willingness of our society to keep all groups within reach of what we expect as a society – the social commitment and investments necessary to ensure that socially and economically vulnerable people are within reach of our common aspirations, common life and its common wealth" (Freiler 2002).

In "An Inclusion Lens," Shookner (2000: 2-3) outlines 5 values that "lay the foundation for SI":

1. Social justice *(fair distribution of inclusion and resources)*

2. Valuing diversity *(recognition and respect; valuing all contributions)*
3. Opportunities for choice
4. Entitlement to rights and services
5. Working together *(common interests & relations = basis for action)*

Shookner also provides a detailed chart which outlines and defines several aspects of both exclusion and inclusion (2000: 16). He includes elements within 8 dimensions: cultural, economic, functional, participatory, physical, political, relational and structural. See Appendix 7 for a full list of the elements of inclusion.

The Atlantic Centre for Excellence in Women's Health (ACEWH) takes a health perspective of course, but also places great emphasis on achieving inclusion through actively seeking to include people experiencing exclusion or marginalization in the policies and programmes designed to support them towards reinsertion (2000).

- Social and economic exclusion happens when people don't have – and can't get – the education, jobs, decent housing, health care, and other things they need to live comfortably, to participate in society, and to feel that they are valued and respected members of their community.
- Social and economic inclusion reflects the need to address poverty and exclusion by including the voiceless and powerless in shaping the policies that affect their lives. It welcomes these individuals and groups into the planning, decision-making and policy-development processes in their community. And it empowers them by offering the opportunities, resources and support they need to participate (ACEWH 2000).

Catherine Frazee, social scientist and noted disability activist, takes a strongly relational approach to social inclusion based on her research with youth with disabilities. She emphasizes that in order to activate people socially, people need both opportunities and assurances of welcome (2003: 15). She argues convincingly that inclusion and equality "are distinct but complimentary principles; the currency of equality is rights, and for inclusion its relationships" (Frazee 2003: 16). She further asserts that the system of rights will only work well when we can "negotiate new relationships of mutuality, empathy and respect" (Frazee 2003: 16).

- As a process, SI "invokes us to cultivate in all children an appetite for involvement, self-expression and self-discovery, along with a well-founded expectation that their participation will be welcomed, their choices supported, their contributions valued and their integrity safeguarded." (Frazee 2003: 15)
- As an outcome SI "shows itself in communities that afford a range of meaningful and respectful opportunities for children's involvement, expression and discovery, consistently and concurrently promoting children's "being" and "becoming," as well as their "doing" and "acting." (Frazee 2003: 15)

Elements

Another method of trying to describe social inclusion has been to provide lists of salient factors. Shookner's list in Appendix 7 is one such example. The lists are helpful in laying out the vast array of concerns which have been shown to impact on people's social participation or inclusion. The problem is that it is such a broad concept, and people have such diverse notions about what they ought to be included in, the lists tend to be so extensive as to make it difficult to have a sense of what priority each issue holds.

Sen's discussion of "functionings," or the options that a person has the capacity to choose to do in the world, does indicate a difference in importance: functionings that are "relevant for well-being vary from such elementary ones as escaping morbidity and mortality, being adequately nourished, having mobility, etc., to complex ones such as being happy, achieving self-respect, taking part in the life of the community, appearing in public without shame" (Sen 1993: 36-7). In other cases however, the lists remain unstratified and include factors such as: adequate income, education, a network of relationships, empowerment, human rights, belonging, and so on (Health Canada 2002: 2; Guildford 2000; Shookner 2000).

III. Social Inclusion as an Outcome: What does it look like?

"We tend to forget that the politics of freedom is rooted in a universal human need for somewhere in the world you can come into your own"
(Jackson 1995: 125)

One directive from The Roeher Institute for this research project was to try to separate out the inputs to social inclusion from the outputs, or what an inclusive society looks like as an outcome (Crawford 2003). This is challenging to do given that the policy research seems to assume general agreement regarding the benefits of SI, and focuses more on discussing triggers for exclusion, and, less often, inputs that promote social inclusion or activation. Furthermore, given the polyvalent, interwoven, and dynamic nature of social & economic inclusion, there is no clear line between co-requisites and outcomes of inclusion.

For example, for some people, getting a job is a co-requisite, pre-condition or input of inclusion, for which the outcome is to draw a person back into the social milieu of relations and responsibilities, and provide them with the resources to live with dignity. However, for the long-term unemployed, skills development can be the input they focus on to draw them back into inclusion, and attaining a job is the outcome of their greater social participation. Similarly, income can be seen as both the outcome of social inclusion and work, or the input needed to help prevent a person from slipping further into SE. The research seems to indicate that each piece of the puzzle - health, duration of poverty (lack of income), unemployment, lack of sociability, civic disengagement, disability, discrimination and so forth – interacts to exacerbate or alleviate conditions brought on by other pieces.

In addition, as noted earlier, there is a conflation between process conditions and attitudinal conditions, which adds another layer to the input/outcome issue: Is changing the public's attitudes about marginalized groups (people with disabilities, ethnic minorities, immigrants, single moms) an input that leads to greater SI, or an outcome of achieving process conditions through legislated inclusion of these people via rights and affirmative action policies?

Finally, it is possible that the processes or attempts at inclusion are themselves an important product or outcome – generative as they are of social participation and activation, regardless of whether they achieve their more narrow intended outcomes such as reinsertion in a job, or supporting someone out of poverty or welfare dependency. In other words, while the emphasis seems to be moving from measuring inputs to outputs (to prove results, not just attempts), it is far from clear that this shift is any more appropriate a measure, especially given the track record of such efforts (Silver 1995).

The Community Inclusion and PAR initiatives undertaken by the Canadian Association for Community Living (CACL) offer an example of this: the reports did not focus on whether they had succeeded in changing some local poli-

cy, or funding mechanism, rather they reported on the increased activity, engagement, and energy generated in connection with the projects for the disability community, including people with disabilities themselves and their families. The process itself seems to have contributed to their social cohesion, social capital and sense of social inclusion, irrespective of project "success" in terms of stated objectives.

A purely outcome-oriented view of social inclusion would likely lead to meta-narratives or broad themes. Beyond the pragmatics of the value of having some command over sufficient financial resources and employment, how people describe a socially inclusive society would centre on notions of belonging, having the freedom to be and become what you want without fear of further marginalization, to have a sense that your contribution (social, political, interpersonal, etc.) will be valued and recognized – even when it does not fit the dominant norm. Discussions about the Quality of Life approach circle around similar concerns of being, belonging and becoming (Brown et. al. 1997).

Part of the problem with describing a universal outcome of SI in any particulars, is that we all have different ideas about what constitutes inclusion, and by extension, "the good life." That is why Taylor suggests that in a liberal society, the state is theoretically only mandated to set out our agreements on how to "treat people with equal respect" as a society, or the "procedural commitments" but not the "substantive commitments" about ideal goals of life; which each person wishes to be free to determine (Taylor 1992: 56). This kind of reflection leads ethics analyst Olthius to ask: "How, institutionally, nationally, and internationally, can we establish and maintain public policies and moral stances of inclusion that at the same time honou. differences?" (Olthius 2000: 3). Minnow offers a possible way out of this problem of contrasting goals, by suggesting that although it is human nature to compare and evaluate different cultures and people, what we need are guidelines that ensure that this process does not "shut off any understanding of our connections with one another as human beings" (1990: 7), but rather gives us tools that further communication and mutual empathy.

Visions of Inclusion as an Outcome

There are several sources which push towards an outcome-driven vision of SI and these are presented here as well as in section IV on indicators. Several of the definitions in the previous section also pointed to such a vision. Frazee proposes that one attractive general outcome of inclusion is a "broadening of exposures" which itself contributes to "augmented individual repertoires of possibility" (2003: 5). This suggests that in an inclusive society, everyone would have a chance to be included in events, activities, and relations in a broad range of settings, with a diverse range of people, without having to fight for it.

Other reports emphasize that it is not only important for people who are excluded or disadvantaged to be included in activities or programmes, but also for them to be part of the design and implementation of programmes. The European commission for example, calls for "mobilization of key stakeholders," including those experiencing poverty and social exclusion (and their NGO advocates) in social and economic inclusion plans. EU states have, or are developing mechanisms for, their ongoing involvement in planning (European commission DJR-SI: 2001: 10). Below are three visions of an inclusive society for comparison.

Laidlaw:

Social inclusion is "a proactive human develop-

ment approach to social well-being that calls for more than the removal of barriers or risks. It requires investments and action to bring about the conditions for inclusion, as the population health and international human development movements have taught us" (Freiler 2002: viii emphasis added).

As one author of the Laidlaw working paper series put it: "Proactive social inclusion means taking us from non-discrimination to anti-discrimination" (Saloojee 2003). The series editor also notes that social inclusion "is about more than just bringing outsiders in – it's about reducing social and economic distances separating people" (Freiler 2002: ix). She also writes of the importance of involving "the excluded" in the process, of a community level focus, and of universal versus targeted programs (ibid.: viii). The most helpful articulation of the overall results of the Laidlaw series is the list of the five cornerstones of SI across the various disciplines, groups and domains that the series addressed (ibid.: ix):

Cornerstones of Social Inclusion	
Valued Recognition	(respect of others / difference extended through systems)
Human Development	(nurture peoples skills and growth to make own choices)
Involvement & engagement	(right & support to be involved / control decisions affecting you)
Proximity	(share public space; integrated schools; exposure to diversity)
Material well-being	(housing, food, social activity, etc.)

Health Promotion Atlantic:

Health Promotion Atlantic (HPA) has sponsored extensive research and reflection on SI/SE including Shookner's (2000) and Guildford's (2001) work. One piece in their literature lists the "Ten Building Blocks for Inclusive Public Policy" (HPA 2001: 13). Their vision of an inclusive society is one in which the following elements are ready to, or are being, deployed:

1. Political will
2. Leadership
3. Organizational readiness (to engage in solutions or partnerships)
4. Collaboration (between public, private, and non-profit levels)
5. Relationship building (for people)
6. Community capacity building (across sectors; in advocates)
7. Respect for community (by national/provincial governments)
8. Commitment to healthy public policy
9. Investment in communities and people
10. Measurement of results and progress

Canadian Association for Community Living (CACL):

CACL sponsored a series of inclusion-oriented projects under the Community Inclusion Initiative (CII), which involved the disability community in promoting inclusion of people with disabilities and their families. CACL produced a report about the outcomes and learnings from the projects called Participatory Action Research (PAR) (Rajan 2002, see also Appendix 10). There was a conference for leaders and participants of CII to share their learning and develop best practices with which to move forward (CACL 2000). The group concluded that the two main barriers to inclusion for people with disabilities in Canada are poverty and isolation.

They developed core themes and successful strategies or best practices. While using different titles than the previous two visions, the ele-

ments overlap to a significant degree. One noteworthy distinction is that the PAR contains a sense of valuing and celebrating the processes aimed at improving social inclusion, as well as the outcomes.

Key Inclusion Themes

1. Enable citizenship
2. Facilitate employment
3. Strengthen families
4. Facilitate personal relationships.

Successful Strategies / Best practices
Projects should be:

1. Vested at the local level
2. Involve self-advocates in all stages
3. Partnerships with key community leaders (diverse)
4. Communicated well (raise awareness, share success with public)
5. Framed as mutually beneficial to broader public
6. Built on existing programmes / networks
7. An opportunity to celebrate together

The Opportunity-cost Vision of Social Inclusion

As discussed earlier, while social inclusion is a generally acceptable goal at the conceptual stage, it is more difficult to implement because it is in the particulars that those who hold privilege and resources will feel that they are being asked to make sacrifices for the "public good," but may not feel sufficiently motivated to do so. As such, some writers have pointed to the need to build the case for SI based on its opportunity cost. In other words, they argue that investment in social and economic inclusion (and combating SE) only involves net additional expenditure in the short-run. In the long run, they argue that social inclusion will save society (and by extension tax-payers and the advantaged) money and problems because of the spin-off effect in lower health care costs, lower crime rates, and lower welfare transfers.

In her report for Health Canada, Guildford argues that in order to garner public and state support for SI, "there is a need to raise the public profile of the costs and problems associated with social exclusion, including the very high costs associated with poor health" (2000: 2). She continues: "as the Europeans remind us, social exclusion is not only personally damaging and socially disruptive. It is also very expensive" (ibid.: preface). The Laidlaw series editor also notes that the status quo of social exclusion threatens social cohesion and is also very expensive for society as a whole (Freiler 2002: viii). This opportunity-cost strategy has been used elsewhere with strong impacts. Books like: "Impacts of Racism on White Americans" (Bowser & Hunt 1996) are an attempt by social scientists and advocates to give racism issues broader resonance.

Radical or Liberal Approaches: What to do with Difference

Within the general descriptions of a socially inclusive society as outlined above, an unresolved element remains: the inherent tension mentioned earlier of what to do with difference in this project of inclusion. In her ethnography on the problematics of Canadian multiculturalism, Mackey puts forward the questions: What are the limits to diversity that a society can handle? Are there limits? (Mackey 1999: 164). She reviews the calls of progressive social thinkers like Bhabha, Hall, and Rushdie for citizens to work towards acceptance of difference that is not mere liberalism, but rather a more radical acceptance which leaves the mainstream, or dominant, group or paradigm open to change in the process (e.g. hybridity, mongrelism, and

cultural mixing) rather than just pushing the minority groups to adapt (Mackey 1999; see also Povinelli 2001).

Mackey's radical perspective is echoed in the work of a minority of writers on social inclusion. This body of work proceeds from the position that the dominant group has no right to set the parameters of social inclusion, and the assumption (though not yet supported with much empirical evidence) that mixing and adapting of the existing social, political and economic structures will make for a better world for all. In describing her model for inclusion, Young notes its two sides – integration and freedom (i.e. to be different): "I offer an alternative ideal of social and political inclusion that I call differentiated solidarity. This ideal shares with an ideal of integration a commitment to combat exclusion and foster individual freedom" (2000: 198-9). Joseph rails against the tyranny of cohesive notions of "the community," arguing that unity has been exposed as "a potentially repressive fiction" (2002: xxvi).

In the modernist period, the marginalized felt that they had no option but to suffer "in silence, either insisting that they are not that different, or resigned to keeping their differences private" (Olthius 2000: 2). Increasingly, however, those same groups are insisting that their differences be "publicly recognized" and dealt with in public policy, creating the conditions of pluralism (loc cit). Taylor calls this the politics of difference, as separate from a politics of universal dignity which underwrote modernism and equal rights by claiming to be "difference blind" (Taylor 1992: 38-9). Radical inclusion, on the other hand, entails recognition of people's "unique identities" and reverse discrimination to ensure equality of outcome (loc cit). Those writing from this position argue that the "neutral public sphere" is not in fact neutral, but biased towards the ethos and values of the dominant group (Taylor 1992: 44).

Of the writers surveyed for this project, Marvyn Novick (2000) is perhaps the best example of this perspective. Novick contrasts two visions of inclusion. The residual vision seeks social inclusion of the marginalized but only insofar as this can be accomplished without fundamentally altering the ideological foundation of existing structures and systems: "merely accommodating and letting people 'in'" (2002). The universal vision involves greater structural change:

> *Inclusion through universalism is a strategy of mutual accommodation in which the mainstream transforms itself to create conditions which reduce social distances in the relative status and public worth of people. There are two critical co-requisites to mutual accommodation: a) the recognition and respect of differences; and b) the discovery and affirmation of commonalities. These are the foundations of collective solidarities. Inclusion through mutual accommodation is what contributes to states of social cohesion* (Novick 2002).

Novick elaborates the difference between these two visions of social inclusion by showing how they play out in four areas related to democratic development. His positions are summarized in chart form below for brevity. It should be noted that although these are presented by Novick as results of two separate systems, it is clear that there are already several government policies and programmes which reflect the spirit of the universal or radical paradigm co-existing with residual approaches in current Canadian inclusion policy.

	Residual	Universal
Social rights	claims to be defended & observed	responsibilities to be recognized & affirmed
Freedom	the liberty to acquire	the capability to pursue a meaningful life
Life chances conferred	through a fair process of competition	through just conditions of endowment
Social well-being advanced	through more wealth	through better states of social cohesion

IV. Indicators of Social & Economic Inclusion & Exclusion

Having established the range of possible definitions and visions of social and economic inclusion, the next step is to develop a method for measuring progress towards the vision. Most models surveyed for this report appear to have been developed to measure both promotion/achievement of inclusion and combating exclusion, and to measure both social and economic dimensions of them. The key questions to ask are: How do we know if we are becoming a more inclusive society? Are our policy interventions working? Are there good indicators we could use to gauge progress towards our goals (or slippage)?

This section has three parts: the first gives a short background on the history, make-up and purpose of social and economic indicators; the second presents what various analysts and policy-makers in the field of SI/SE think ought to be measured, and the different possibilities for doing that; the third part takes up the discussion of the content of indicators directly, and includes several possible models that The Roeher Institute /HRDC could choose from, or adapt for their purposes.

A. What are Social and Economic Indicators?

The Canadian Policy Research Networks (CPRN) commissioned a survey of various mechanisms and models for assessing well-being (Sharpe 2000). Sharpe begins with a discussion of the history, definition and purposes of indicators. Highlights from that report are presented here and supplemented with other sources.

Social indicators are "statistical time series... used to monitor the social system, helping to identify changes and to guide intervention to alter the course of social change" (Land 1999 in Sharpe 2000: 7). In the 1960's, the American government wanted to assess the effects and side-effects of their programs (such as NASA) and supported development of "a system of social indicators to detect and anticipate social change as well as evaluate the impact of specific programs and policies" (Sharpe 2000: 7). Indicators eventually declined in popularity due to "a perceived lack of usefulness of social indicators in policy making" and their "overly simplistic view" of the issues and of how policy interventions work (loc cit). In particular, advocates of social indicators were not able to generate satisfactory "causal explanations of social trends that would help formulate social policy" (Sharpe 2000: 8).

Sociologist Ken Land (1999) at Duke University "identifies three uses for social indicators: monitoring, social reporting for public enlightenment, and social forecasting" (Sharpe 2000: 8-9). He also notes "three types of social indicators" (paraphrased from Sharpe 2000: 7-8):

- Normative Welfare Indicators: Relates directly to policy. In the language of policy analysis, this type of social indicator is a

target or outcome variable which public policy tries to influence. Land points out that use of social indicators in this sense requires that society agree about what needs to be improved.

- Life Satisfaction Indicators (or happiness): Subjective well-being, attempt to measure psychological satisfaction, happiness, and life fulfillment through survey research instruments that ascertain the subjective reality in which people live. Since the link between objective conditions and subjective well-being can be paradoxical, need to monitor both.
- Descriptive Indicators: Social measurement and analyses designed to improve our understanding of society.

It is frequently the case that statistical surveyors attempt to combine several indicators into an index that represents many dimensions of an issue (like poverty) in one, lead indicator. For the CPRN survey of models and indices, Sharpe notes that on one level, there is an inevitable "arbitrariness of index construction" given that how to weight different indicators in the index is an art more than a science. Still, in his comparison of GDP to five alternative measures of well-being, he found some consistency: "Canadian results for four of the five independently constructed indexes show much smaller increases in well-being than in GDP per capita, and show absolute declines in recent years" (Sharpe 2000: 28, see Appendix 2).

Other researchers have also called for caution in the use of single outcome-based indicators for assessing progress towards SI given their sensitivity to macro-economic and political changes, and to the variability in this sensitivity across regions and nations (Feres et. al. 2002). For example, they argue (based on statistical modelling of multiple scenarios using Euromod data) that policies "to promote SI will create greater change in indicators in a boom than recession" (loc cit). As such, any accurate use of indicators should be contextualized in broader changes.

A final note on the use of indicators is that models are often built to reflect different conceptual levels of indicators (groupings of common themed indicators like housing), or different priorities of indicators (employment, for example, may be seen as more vital to inclusion than leisure opportunities).

The EU work on SE/SI has chosen to group indicators first by priority, and secondarily by theme. The first of 3 levels of indicators is called Headline or Lead indicators and contains 10 top priorities (see Appendix 8); the second level of 8 Supporting indicators dimensionalize the first ten, and these two levels are common across the EU (Atkinson 2001, 2002). The EU has allowed for a third level of indicators which will be left to the member states' discretion to choose and need not be coordinated across the EU (loc cit). Another way to construct a model of multiple indicators was suggested by Room (1995: 235-6) and is somewhat reflected in Appendices 1, 6, & 7:

- Domains (e.g. education, employment, health, housing, social participation, etc.).
- Sub-domains (e.g. for education, could include attendance, literacy, numeracy).
- Indicators (e.g. for attendance, could be % of those 5-18 in school).

B. Measurement, Goals, Principles, Criteria

Before making choices about what to measure, policy makers must develop criteria and principles regarding what kind of indicators are acceptable and necessary for the research area at hand. For example, poverty can be measured

two ways with different results: directly (by assessing people's consumption and living conditions, etc.) and indirectly (by income) (Berghman 1995: 17). Some policy makers argue, for example, that measuring income only does not give an accurate measure of how many people are "poor" because in the short-term, people's consumption and lifestyle may be augmented by investments in goods and savings in previous, income-earning periods (Room 1995: 244).

EU/EC policy makers concerned with SE/SI have recorded their preference for outcome-centred indicators because this fits with their commitment to subsidiarity and management-by-objectives in the EU (Atkinson 2002: 5; Atkinson 2001). In other words, their goal is common measurement of end results that move towards inclusion, and they allow the states to determine the best approach/means in their local area (loc cit). Again, this misses a lesson from projects like PAR/CII where participants suggest that even just the process of trying to work towards SI, and having government support to do so, was beneficial in creating a degree of "social activation" and participation, regardless of particular outcomes achieved, like securing greater funding for caregiver respite. The point is that the process itself can be generative or productive of good things, (e.g. awareness, consciousness raising, re-positioning people, empowering them) a finding that has been discussed in other domains regarding citizen activism and resistance (Ong 1987; Kingfischer 1996). This literature survey, however, did not turn up mechanisms for measuring such factors.

Indeed, most researchers indicate the complexity of measuring something like inclusion, at least in a way that is meaningful and comparable across nations. In 2001 for example, all EU member states prepared National Action Plans for Inclusion (NAPs/incl) to work towards social inclusion as nations and jointly as the EU. In Mayes' discussion of one of those NAPs for the Netherlands, he notes that while the Netherlands is often held up as an example of success (they reduced an already low unemployment rate and increased their social participation rates), there are factors in how the numbers are constructed which hinder comparability (Mayes 2001: 13). Half of those who are unemployed have been so for more than a year, and half of those working are just part-time/temporary (loc cit). Further, an "unusually high number of people have been classified as disabled and thus not counted in the unemployment rate" (loc cit).

Income, education, literacy and other factors are valued differently across nations: for example, the requirements for job seekers in Portugal and Germany are quite different, making direct comparison of indicators difficult (Atkinson 2002: 10). Atkinson also points out that the first round of NAPs/incl were disappointing due to the lack of integration of recommended SI policies with other national plans for economic well-being in particular, and for lack of consultation with stakeholders including people experiencing marginalization (Atkinson 2002: 7). It is widely noted that these problems will likely be corrected for in the next round of EU NAPs/incl due in 2003.

Still, if the project of social and economic inclusion is to move forward with public support, there must be ways to "identify the triggers for ascent [from poverty] and social reinsertion" (Room 1995: 237). Appendix 9 includes the thorough lists of principles and criteria for choosing indicators for social and economic inclusion that have been developed by the European Commission Social Protection Committee that was charged with developing common indicators for the 2003 round of NAPs/incl.

C. Content of Indicators for Social Inclusion: What to measure?

This final section presents a brief discussion of the basis on which indicators of social and economic inclusion and exclusion have been developed to date in the EU and Canada. Several appendices attached to this report include a variety of models of measuring social and economic inclusion and exclusion and other similar social goals. Also included is a list of the CII/PAR project outcomes for ease of comparison with where these outcomes overlap with the kinds of things that the EU and other SI policymakers are prioritising (CACL 2002).

The indicators that member states of the EU developed for their first NAPs/incl were agreed at the domain area only, and each country was able to choose their own specific indicators to report on each domain. The full range of indicators chosen is recorded in Atkinson (2002: 44-68) and all NAPs/incl are publicly available on the web as well. The plan was to encompass concerns with: financial poverty, income inequality, regional variation in employment rates, long-term unemployment, joblessness, low educational qualifications, low life expectancy and poor health (Atkinson 2002: 6). The actual domains used in the NAPs/incl were (ibid.: 44-68):

- Financial
- Education
- Employment
- Health
- Housing
- Social participation

Some member states also discussed the process of developing the NAPs/incl as an important part of moving towards inclusion: for example, the Finnish working party had good practices on citizen engagement as it held several hearings leading up to development of plans (Atkinson 2002: 9). The Belgians initiated dialogue with "the excluded" themselves that was considered helpful but needed better mechanisms to work well (loc cit). There were also some problems with trying to reconcile the member state and EU economic objectives with the social and economic inclusion objectives, given that in the short term at least, it is perceived that competitiveness (and thus economic growth) is directly at odds with the directionally egalitarian goals represented by the social inclusion policies (Atkinson 2002: 13).

The indicators which they chose were based on their assessment of two things: the most common risk factors which draw people into the process of social exclusion, and the eight core challenges that they agreed they face in the EU this decade. The risk factors of social exclusion were multiple but "unemployment, especially when long-term, is by far the most frequently mentioned factor" (European Commission DJR 2001: 7). Other factors include: "low income, low quality employment, homelessness, weak health, immigration, low qualifications and early school leaving, gender inequality, discrimination and racism, disability, old age, family break-ups, drug abuse and alcoholism and living in an area of multiple disadvantage" (European Commission DJR 2001: 7).

This set of concerns guided the committee's development of eight core challenges that they see as important for the EU nations to grapple with and work on in this decade (European Commission DJR 2001: 9). Some of them could be considered outcomes of SI policy, while others, like #3, are just statements of intent. The committee notes that "the scale and intensity of the problems vary widely across Member States" (loc cit).

Challenges for the EU

1. Developing an inclusive labour market and promoting employment as a right and opportunity for all;
2. Guaranteeing an adequate income and resources to live in human dignity;
3. Tackling educational disadvantage;
4. Preserving family solidarity and protecting the rights of children;
5. Ensuring good accommodation for all;
6. Guaranteeing equal access to and investing in high quality services (health, transport, social, care, cultural, recreational and legal);
7. Improving the delivery of services;
8. Regenerating areas of multiple deprivation.

These lists fed into the development of the list of primary and secondary indicators of social and economic inclusion and exclusion that the European commission has approved for use in the next round of NAPs/incl in 2003. The indicators and their definitions and data sources can be found in full in Appendix 8. The reader can note that most of the indicators measure variables related to economic/employment concerns. This bias has been duly noted by the creators, who have written about their desire to include variables from other, non-monetary domains (such as housing and homelessness) once appropriate variables and sources can be agreed on in the EU (Atkinson 2002).

Other analysts are trying to work through what some appropriate indicators might be as well (Haney 2001; Jupp 2001). For example, one review suggests that political inclusion "implies dialogical debate, proportional representation, and preparation for democratic citizenship" (Haney 2001: 266). Economic inclusion is said to require that: "workplaces must emphasize attachment and reciprocity, while economic regulation must be based on cooperation and a broad definition of stakeholding" (loc cit.). The reviewer notes that, "it is less clear whether these ideals have any chance of being practiced" (loc cit.).

With this as background, following is a selection of lists of social indicators that seem to be the most relevant to The Roeher Institute's work in the area.

Lists of Social Indicators

Appendix	Title
10	PAR Community Snapshots Report 2002 (CACL)
8	EU Common Indicators of Social and Economic Inclusion & Exclusion; for use in future NAPs/incl (SPC 2001)
3	Ontario Social Development Council Quality of Life index (Sharpe 2000)
6	Societal outcomes and indicators of SI for People with developmental disabilities (HRDC 2002)
7	8 Dimensions of Inclusion and Exclusion (Shookner 2000)
5	Determinants of Health (Health Canada 2001)
1	Social Indicators of Well-being (OECD 1982)
2	Elements of 5 Indices of Economic and social Well-being in Canada (Sharpe 2000)

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Appendices

Appendix 1

The OECD (1982: 13) List of Social Indicators (Sharpe 2000: 23)

SOCIAL CONCERN	INDICATOR
HEALTH	
Length of Life	-Life Expectancy
	-Perinatal Mortality Rate
Healthfulness of Life	-Short-term Disability
	-Long-term Disability
EDUCATION & LEARNING	
Use of Educational Facilities	-Regular Education Experience
	-Adult Education
Learning	-Literacy Rate
EMPLOYMENT & QUALITY OF WORKING LIFE	
Availability of Employment	-Unemployment Rate
	-Involuntary Part-time Work
	-Discouraged Workers
Quality of Working Life	-Average Working Hours
	-Travel Time to Work
	-Annual Leave
	-Atypical Work Schedule
	-Distribution of Earnings
	-Fatal Occupational injuries
	-Work Environment Nuisances
TIME AND LEISURE	
Use of Time	-Free Time
	-Free Time Activities
COMMAND OVER GOODS AND SERVICES	
Income	-Distribution of Income
-Low Income	
-Material Deprivation	
Wealth	-Distribution of Wealth
PHYSICAL ENVIRONMENT	
Housing Conditions	-Indoor Dwelling Space
	-Access to Outdoor Space
	-Basic Amenities
Accessibility to Services	-Proximity of Selected Services
Environmental Nuisances	-Exposure to Air Pollutants
	-Exposure to Noise
SOCIAL ENVIRONMENT	
Social Attachment	-Suicide Rate
PERSONAL SAFETY	
Exposure to Risk	-Fatal Injuries
	-Serious Injuries
Perceived Threat	-Fear for Personal Safety

Appendix 2

Variables Included in Indexes of Economic and Social Well-being for Canada

(Sharpe 2000: 25)

	GPI	MEW	IEBW	ISH	ILS
Income/wages	no	no	no	yes	yes
Personal consumption	yes	yes	yes	no	yes
Non-market activities	yes	yes	yes	no	no
Leisure	yes	yes	no	no	no
Government spending	no	no	yes	no	no
Household facilities	no	no	no	no	yes
Regrettables	yes	yes	yes	no	no
Capital stock	yes	yes	yes	no	no
Financial wealth	no	no	no	no	yes
R&D	no	no	yes	no	no
Natural resources	yes	yes	yes	no	no
Educational attainment	no	yes	yes	no	yes
Pollution	yes	yes	yes	no	no
Foreign debt	yes	yes	yes	no	no
Income distribution	yes	no	yes	yes	no
Poverty	no	no	yes	yes	no
Unemployment	no	no	yes	yes	yes
Social pgrm covrge	no	no	yes	yes	no
Health spending	no	yes	yes	no	no
Crime	no	no	no	yes	no
Life expectancy	no	no	yes	no	yes
Social indicators	no	no	no	no	yes

GPI Genuine Progress Indicator (Redefining Progress think tank)
MEW Measure of Economic Welfare (Norhaus & Tobin, Yale)
IEBW Index of Economic Well-being (Osberg (Dal) & Sharpe)
ISH Index of social health (Miringoff, Fordham U)
ILS Index of Living Standards (Fraser Institute)

"A total of 22 variables that contribute to economic and social well-being are included in the fives indexes surveyed. The use of these variables for each index is given in Table 3. The index that encompasses the most variables is the IEBW, with 16, followed by the GPI and MEW with 9 and 10, respectively, 8 for the ILS, and 6 for the ISH. The UN Human Development Index, which is not covered in this section has only 3 of the variables: life expectancy, income, and educational attainment" (Sharpe 2000: 26).

Appendix 3

Ontario Social Development Council Quality of Life Index -QLI

(Sharpe 2000: 35)

"Using the findings from the literature review, the Ontario Social Development Council developed, with input from community groups, an index of Quality of Life for Ontario. The purpose of the QLI was to provide a tool for community development that could be used to monitor key indicators that encompass the social, health, environmental and economic dimensions of the quality of life. The QLI can be used to comment frequently on key issues that affect people and contribute to the public debate about how to improve the quality of life in our communities and province."

"Shookner (1999) found that the quality of life has declined in Ontario since 1990. A closer look at the 12 indicators reveals progress in some areas and setbacks in others" (Sharpe 2000: 35).

The following indicators were included in the Quality of Life Index:

1. SOCIAL:
- Children in care of Children's Aid Societies
- Social assistance recipients
- Public housing waiting lists

2. HEAL TH:
- Low birth weight babies
- Elderly waiting for placement in long-term care facilities
- Suicide rates

3. ECONOMIC:
- Number of people unemployed
- Number of people working
- Bankruptcies

4. ENVIRONMENTAL:
- Hours of poor air quality
- Environmental spills
- Tonnes diverted from landfill to blue boxes

Appendix 4

Social and Economic Exclusion and Inclusion

(Shookner 2002: 16)

Several definitions are offered for social and economic exclusion and inclusion, based on work under way in Atlantic Canada and elsewhere. Readers are encouraged to use whichever definition works best for them.

From **Making the Case for Social and Economic Inclusion (Guildford)**

To be included is to be accepted and to be able to participate fully within our families, our communities and our society. Those who are excluded, whether because of poverty, ill-health, gender, race, or lack of education, do not have the opportunity for full participation in the economic and social benefits of society.

From the **Inclusion Project Information Kit (Atlantic CEWH)**

Social and economic exclusion happens when people don't have -and can't get -the education, jobs, decent housing, health care, and other things they need to live comfortably, to participate in society, and to feel that they are valued and respected members of their community. Social and economic inclusion reflects the need to address poverty and exclusion by including the voiceless and powerless in shaping the policies that affect their lives. It welcomes these individuals and groups into the planning, decision-making and policy-development processes in their community. And it empowers them by offering the opportunities, resources and support they need to participate.

From **Development as Freedom (Sen 2000)**

Inclusion is characterized by a society's widely shared social experience and active participation, by a broad equality of opportunities and life chances for individuals, and by the achievement of a basic level of well-being for all citizens.

From **What needs to change? Toward a vision of social inclusion for children, families and communities (Freiler)**

Social inclusion is the capacity and willingness of our society to keep all groups within reach of what we expect as a society -the social commitment and investments necessary to ensure that socially and economically vulnerable people are within reach of our common aspirations, common life and its common wealth.

Exclusion, Inclusion and Health

Social and economic inclusion provides a framework that includes all of the determinants of health. International evidence has established that economic inequality is a powerful determinant of health. The wider the gap between the rich and the poor, the poorer the health status of the entire population (Guildford). Adequate income, education and a network of relationships enable people to participate as valued members of society (Guildford).

The experience of exclusion can be seen through the interplay of the determinants of health: (Health Canada 2000) Each linkage deepens the experience of exclusion, and over the entire life cycle, the depth of exclusion is reinforced... The linking of low access to resources, low social status, low levels of education and healthy child development, high levels of racial intolerance and unemployment, fragmented social networks, and limited access to health services, deepens the exclusion (Health Canada 2000).

Exclusion has both social and economic costs. As the number of people excluded from participation in their community grows, their individual problems affect the well-being of society (Atlantic CEWH). Poverty leads to poor health. Poor health leads to unemployment. Unemployment leads back to more poverty, and to increased crime and violence. All of these create costs that we pay now and that our children will continue to pay (Atlantic CEWH).

Appendix 5

The Determinants of Health

(Health Canada 2001) in (Shookner 2002: 17)

A population health approach measures and analyzes the full spectrum of factors -and their interactions- known to influence and contribute to health. Commonly referred to as the determinants of health, these factors include social, economic, and physical environments; early childhood development; personal health practices; individual capacity and coping skills; human biology; and health services.

Income, income distribution, and social status.

Research indicates that income and social status are the single most important determinants of health. Studies show that health status improves at each step up the income and social hierarchy. In addition, societies which are reasonably prosperous and have an equitable distribution of wealth have the healthiest populations, regardless of the amount they spend on health care.

Social support networks.

Better health is associated with support from families, friends, and communities. Some studies conclude that the health effect of social relationships may be as important as established risk factors such as smoking, obesity, high blood pressure, and a sedentary lifestyle.

Education.

Health status improves with the level of education and literacy, including self-ratings of positive health or indicators of poor health such as activity limitation or lost work days. Education increases opportunities for income and job security, and provides people with a sense of control over life circumstances -key factors that influence health.

Employment and working conditions.

People who have more control over their work circumstances and fewer stress-related demands on the job are healthier. Workplace hazards and injuries are significant causes of health problems. Moreover, unemployment is associated with poorer health.

Social environments.

Societal values and rules affect the health and well-being of individuals and populations. Social stability , recognition of diversity, safety , good human relationships, and community cohesiveness provide a supportive social environment which mitigates risks to optimal health.

Physical environment.

Physical factors in the natural environment such as air, water, and soil quality are key influences on health. Factors in the human-built environment such as housing, workplace safety, community and road design are also important factors.

Healthy child development.
The effect of prenatal and early childhood experiences on health in later life, well-being, coping skills, and competence is very powerful. For example, a low birth weight links with health and social problems throughout the lifespan. In addition, mothers at each step up the income scale have children with higher birth weights, on average, than those on the step below.

Personal health practices.
Personal practices such as smoking, use of alcohol and other drugs, healthy eating, physical activity, and other behaviours, affect health and well-being. Many of Canada's most common health problems are linked to these practices.

Individual capacity and coping skills.
Social environments that enable and support healthy choices and lifestyles, as well as people's knowledge, intentions, behaviours, and coping skills for dealing with life in healthy ways, are key influences on health.

Biology and genetic endowment.
The basic biology and organic make-up of the human body are fundamental determinants of health. Inherited predispositions influence the ways individuals are affected by particular diseases or health challenges.

Health services.
Health services, especially those designed to maintain and promote health, prevent disease and injury, and restore health, contribute to population health.

Gender.
Refers to the many different roles, personality traits, attitudes, behaviours, relative powers, and influences which society assigns to the two sexes. Each gender has specific health issues or may be affected in different ways by the same issue.

Culture and ethnicity.
Come from both personal history and wider situational, social, political, geographic, and economic factors. It is acknowledged that culture and gender have a cross-cutting, influential effect on all the other health determinants. This list of health determinants may evolve as population health research reveals new insights related to the factors and conditions that influence and contribute to health.

Appendix 6

Advancing Social Inclusion of People with Disabilities

HRDC (2002: 6-7)

Table 1.1 : Societal Outcomes and Indicators

OUTCOME	INDICATOR
Disability Supports	**Disability Supports**
Persons with disabilities have access to the personal supports that allow them to complete desired activities	Of adults needing help with everyday activities, percent having all the help they need
Persons with disabilities have access to the devices and aids, including health-related aids, that they need	Of adults requiring use of one or more aids or devices for everyday activities, percent having all that they need
Persons with disabilities live in housing that meets their individual access needs	Percent of adults with disabilities who have all the modifications they need in their home
Persons with disabilities can move freely around their local communities and between communities	Percent of adults with disabilities who report that local or long-distance transportation meets their needs
Information, ideas and entertainment is accessible to everyone regardless of disability	Amount of material published in multiple formats
Persons with disabilities are able to participate in desired recreation, leisure or community activities and obtain necessary health and social services	Percent of adults reporting difficulty obtaining needed health care
Skills Development, Learning and Employment	**Skills Development, Learning and Employment**
Persons with disabilities have the knowledge and skills required to actively participate as citizens, in the workforce and in society	For children 6-15: percent attending school
	Percent of working-age adults with post-secondary diplomas or degrees
Working age adults with disabilities are able to participate fully in the labour force	Employment rate of working-age adults
	Percent of working-age adults who work all year
Adults with disabilities who are working receive equitable compensation based on their knowledge and experience	Hourly wage
Accessible employers (with necessary architectural, workstation, job design, etc. accommodations)	Percent of employers that provide altered facilities. equipment or aids to accommodate persons with disabilities

OUTCOME	INDICATOR
Income	**Income**
Household incomes of persons with disabilities are similar to those of others	Household income
Persons with disabilities have incomes that meet their needs	Percent of persons with low household incomes
Working age adults with disabilities receive an adequate income from employment	Percent of working-age whose largest source of income is employment
Injury Prevention and Health Promotion	**Injury Prevention and Health Promotion**
Rate of serious injuries causing disabilities is reduced Reduction of preventable serious diseases or conditions causing disabilities	Injury-related hospital admission rate
	Occurrence of major conditions that may cause disability (FAS/FAE, Diabetes, HIV/AIDS, Rheumatism/Arthritis)
Persons with disabilities are physically active according to their needs and capabilities	Physical activity (increased activity and reduction in physical inactivity among persons with disabilities) (Supplemental indicators: rates of smoking, heavy drinking)
	Athletes with disabilities are able to participate in regional, national and international sport competitions
Disability Community Capacity	**Disability Community Capacity**
Persons with disabilities participate as partners in identifying issues and in the development of policy and programs both as individuals and through voluntary organizations that represent their interests. More specific outcomes to be identified.	No national statistical indicators Available – qualitative assessment only until availability of Voluntary Sector Initiative national surveys

Appendix 7

Table of Elements of Inclusion & Exclusion on 8 Dimensions

(Shookner 2000: 5)

ELEMENTS OF EXCLUSION	DIMENSIONS	ELEMENTS OF INCLUSION
Disadvantage, fear of differences, intolerance, gender stereotyping, historic oppression, cultural deprivation	**Cultural**	Valuing contributions of women and men to society, recognition of differences, valuing diversity, positive identity, anti-racist education
Poverty, unemployment, non-standard employment, inadequate income for basic needs, participation in society, stigma, embarrassment, inequality, income disparities, deprivation, insecurity, devaluation of caregiving, illiteracy, lack of educational access	**Economic**	Adequate income for basic needs and participation in society, poverty eradication, employment, capability for personal development, personal security, sustainable development, reducing disparities, value and support caregiving
Disability, restrictions based on limitations, overwork, time stress, undervaluing of assets available	**Functional**	Ability to participate, opportunities for personal development, valued social roles, recognizing competence
Marginalization, silencing, barriers to participation, institutional dependency, no room for choice, not involved in decision making	**Participatory**	Empowerment, freedom to choose, contribution to community, access to programs, resources and capacity to support participation, involved in decision making, social action
Barriers to movement, restricted access to public spaces, social distancing, unfriendly/unhealthy environments, lack of transportation, unsustainable environments	**Physical**	Access to public spaces and community resources, physical proximity and opportunities for interaction, healthy/supportive environments, access to transportation, sustainability
Denial of human rights, restrictive policies and legislation, blaming the victims, short-term view, one dimensional, restricting eligibility for programs, lack of transparency in decision making	**Political**	Affirmation of human rights, enabling policies and legislation, social protection for vulnerable groups, removing systemic barriers, will to take action, long-term view, multi-dimensional, citizen participation, transparent decision making
Isolation, segregation, distancing, competitiveness, violence and abuse, fear, shame	**Relational**	Belonging, social proximity, respect, recognition, cooperation, solidarity, family support, access to resources
Discrimination, racism, sexism, homophobia, restrictions on eligibility, no access to programs, barriers to access, withholding information, departmental silos, government jurisdictions, secretive/restricted communications, rigid boundaries	**Structural**	Entitlements, access to programs, transparent pathways to access, affirmative action, community capacity building, inter-departmental links, inter-governmental links, accountability, open channels of communication, options for change, flexibility.

Appendix 8

Social and Economic Indicators of SE/SI

Primary Indicators

	INDICATOR	DEFINITION	DATA SOURCES + MOST RECENT YEAR AVAILABLE
1a	Low income rate after transfers with breakdowns by age and gender	Percentage of individuals living in households where the total equivalised household income is below 60% national equivalised median income. Age groups are: 1.0-15, 2.16-24, 3.25-49, 4.50-64, 5. 65+. Gender breakdown for all age groups + total	Eurostat ECHP 1997
1b	Low income rate after transfers with breakdowns by most frequent activity status	Percentage of individuals aged 16+ living in households where the total equivalised household income is below 60% national equivalised median income. Most frequent activity status: 1.employed, 2.self- employed, 3.unemployed, 4.retired, 5.inactives-other. Gender breakdown for all categories + total	Eurostat ECHP 1997
1c	Low income rate after transfers with breakdowns by household type	Percentage of individuals living in households where the total equivalised household income is below 60% national equivalised median income. 1. 1 person household, under 30 yrs old 2. 1 person household, 30-64 3. 1 person household, 65+ 4. 2 adults without dependent child; at least one person 65+ 5. 2 adults without dep. child; both under 65 6. other households without dep. Children 7. single parents, dependent child 1+ 8. 2 adults, 1 dependent child 9. 2 adults, 2 dependent children 10. 2 adults, 3+ dependent children 11. other households with dependent children 12. Total	Eurostat ECHP 1997
1d	Low income rate after transfers with breakdowns by tenure status	Percentage of individuals living in households where the total equivalised household income is below 60% national equivalised median income. 1. Owner or rent free 2. Tenant 3. Total	Eurostat ECHP 1997

Primary Indicators

	INDICATOR	DEFINITION	DATA SOURCES + MOST RECENT YEAR AVAILABLE
1e	Low income threshold (illustrative values)	The value of the low income threshold (60% median national equivalised income) in PPS, Euro and national currency for: 1. Single person household 2. Household with 2 adults, two children	Eurostat ECHP 1997
2.	Distribution of income	S80/S20: Ratio between the national equivalised income of the top 20% of the income distribution to the bottom 20%.	Eurostat ECHP 1997
3.	Persistence of low income	Persons living in households where the total equivalised household income was below 60% median national equivalised income in year n and (at least) two years of years n-1, n-2, n-3. Gender breakdown + total	Eurostat ECHP 1997
4.	Relative median low income gap	Difference between the median income of persons below the low income threshold and the low income threshold, expressed as a percentage of the low income threshold. Gender breakdown + total	Eurostat ECHP 1997
5.	Regional cohesion	Coefficient of variation of employment rates at NUTS 2 level.	Eurostat LFS
6.	Long term unemployment rate	Total long-term unemployed population (_12 months; ILO definition) as proportion of total active population; Gender breakdown + total	Eurostat LFS (2000)
7.	Persons living in Jobless households	Persons aged 0-65 (0-60) living in households where none is working out of the persons living in eligible households. Eligible households are all except those where everybody falls in one of these categories: - aged less than 18 years old - aged 18-24 in education and inactive - aged 65 (60) and over and not working	Eurostat LFS 2000
8.	Early school leavers not in education or training	Share of total population of 18-24-year olds having achieved ISCED level 2 or less and not attending education or training. Gender breakdown + total	Eurostat LFS 2000
9.	Life expectancy at birth	Number of years a person may be expected to live, starting at age 0, for Males and Females.	Eurostat Demography Statistics
10.	Self defined health status by income level	Ratio of the proportions in the bottom and top quintile groups (by equivalised income) of the population aged 16 and over who classify themselves as in a bad or very bad state of health on the WHO definition Gender breakdown + total	Eurostat ECHP 1997

Secondary Indicators

	INDICATOR	DEFINITION	DATA SOURCES + MOST RECENT YEAR AVAILABLE
11.	Dispersion around the low income threshold	Persons living in households where the total equivalised household income was below 40, 50 and 70% median national equivalised income	Eurostat ECHP 1997
12.	Low income rate anchored at a moment in time	Base year ECHP 1995. 1. Relative low income rate in 1997 (=indicator 1) 2. Relative low income rate in 1995 multiplied by the inflation factor of 1994/96	Eurostat ECHP 1997
13.	Low income rate before transfers	Relative low income rate where income is calculated as follows: 1. Income excluding all social transfers 2. Income including retirement pensions and survivors pensions. 3. Income after all social transfers (= indicator 1) Gender breakdown + total	Eurostat ECHP 1997
14.	Gini coefficient	The relationship of cumulative shares of the population arranged according to the level of income, to the cumulative share of the total amount received by them	Eurostat ECHP 1997
15.	Persistence of low income (below 50% of median income)	Persons living in households where the total equivalised household income was below 50% median national equivalised income in year n and (at least) two years of years n-1, n-2, n-3. Gender breakdown + total	Eurostat ECHP 1997
16.	Long term unemployment share	Total long-term unemployed population (?12 months; ILO definition) as proportion of total unemployed population; Gender breakdown + total	Eurostat LFS 2000
17.	Very long term unemployment rate	Total very long-term unemployed population (?24 months; ILO definition) as proportion of total active population; Gender breakdown + total	Eurostat LFS 2000
18.	Persons with low educational attainment	Educational attainment rate of ISCED level 2 or less for adult education by age groups (25-34, 35-44, 45-54, 55-64). Gender breakdown + total	Eurostat LFS 2000

Appendix 9

Principles and Criteria for SI/SE Indicators in the EU

Principles applied to indicators
(Atkinson 2002:20)

An indicator should:

- Capture the essence of the problem (clear nonnative interpretation)
- Be robust and statistically validated (dangers of mis-measurement and comparability) Be responsive to policy interventions but not subject to manipulation
- Be measurable & comparable across Member States and internationally where possible (e.g. UN and the OECD) (e.g. -no solution yet on measuring homelessness)
- Be timely and susceptible to revision
- Not impose too large a burden to measure it (on States, enterprises, or citizens)

Criteria for choosing indicators for social inclusion
(Cantillon 2001; and Atkinson 2002: 30-6)

1. **Multi-dimensionality**
   The social indicators reflect the multi-dimensionality of the issues. The relations between the variables are too complex, and non-comparable across states to create an aggregate index.
2. **National, EU-wide or regional?**
   The indicators are national, not EU-wide. Direct comparison across Member States is problematic because many variables are sensitive to size and number of population (e.g. dispersion)
3. **Individual versus household**
   The indicators count each individual as one
4. **Relative versus absolute**
   Misleading choices: Essential questions are: a) What is the level of the standard against which the indicator has to be evaluated? b) What method to use for updating this standard over time? c) How to distinguish between people at risk of poverty and those in crisis?
5. **Static and dynamic**
   Indicators are both static or dynamic (i.e. snapshot and changes over time)
6. **Objective versus subjective indicators**
   The ISI's are objective, as far as possible. Subjective indicators still pose too many comparative problems, and problems with disconnects between objective and subjective data.
7. **Empirical feasibility**
   They are all empirically possible and many are measured already
8. **Use of ECHP and EU**
   The ECHP survey (European Community household panel) = key source of data for ISI's. 5 out of the 7 Level 1 indicators are derived from these surveys. (future = SILC)

Appendix 10

PAR Community Snapshots Report

(CACL 2002)

Factors that have led to successful inclusion in communities:

1) Establish 'community building' as the foundation of inclusion
   - Frame as having benefits for whole community not just people
   - Help marginal groups overcome impediments to inclusion

2) Establishing partnerships and coalition building
   - Facilitate links with other organizations and people in community
   - Positively Enable people to come together (plans, transport, halls)
   - Facilitate interpersonal relations

3) Promote self-determination and confidence of individuals, families & partners
   - By supporting self-advocacy
   - By supporting families (stress reduction, respite, linkages, leadership)
   - By supporting other partners (to take ownership, have confidence)

4) Communicate the vision and promote knowledge and action
   - By communicating effectively (various media, awareness-raising sessions, accessibility, story-telling, positive positioning (vs. adversarial))
   - By sharing knowledge (create opportunities to learn new things; awareness, tools)
   - By employing practices that are practical and respectful of diversity (project based, local)
   - By ensuring the appropriate staff skills and qualities
   - By planning to do it for the long-term

5) Advocate for policy and system changes

6) Work towards the attainment of long term resources and sustainability